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est inhérent à la création et il fait la distinction fondamentale, qui est curieusement absente de la première partie de l'ouvrage, entre l'américanité et l'américanisation. L'article de Véronique Nguyễn-Duy sur les téléromans et les téléseries est encore plus convaincant. Postulant qu'il existe un rapport direct entre, d'une part, le contexte socio-économique, les structures de production et de diffusion, ainsi que les cadres législatifs et réglementaires, et, d'autre part, le contenu des émissions de télévision, Nguyễn-Duy montre que les téléseries et téléromans québécois se distinguent par l'espace et les figures symboliques, et par la dialectique opposant les personnages. De la même façon, le cinéaste Michel Poulette montre comment ses films, qu'on pourrait qualifier d'américains dans leur thématique et leur conception, sont en fait enracinés dans la culture québécoise. Le politologue Christian Dufour poursuit cette exploration de l'interpénétration de la culture mondiale et de la culture nationale en donnant comme exemple de synthèse réussie la star Céline Dion. L'hypothèse est intéressante, mais elle n'est nullement prouvée. Claude-Jean Bertrand pousse encore plus loin cette idée de métissage en utilisant le concept de format. Pour lui, c'est dans l'ordre des choses que des nations évoluant dans le même contexte développent des formats semblables. Provocateur, il a choisi le titre « Les modèles étatsuniens : rien à craindre ». Pourtant, les interrogations et les réflexions de Jean-Guy Rens et de Serge Proulx sur les fonctions idéologiques et culturelles des nouvelles technologies, en tête de liste l'Internet, nous rappellent que les enjeux sont bien réels, quoiqu'ils soient encore flous. Le dernier texte du recueil, celui d'Yvan Bernier, nous ramène sur le terrain des politiques culturelles, plus précisément sur leur évolution récente et leur avenir dans un contexte de réglementation internationale croissante, où les Américains jouent un rôle de premier plan.

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Shirley Spafford — *No Ordinary Academics: Economics and Political Science at the University of Saskatchewan, 1910–1960*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 2000. Pp. ix, 272.

This is no ordinary book. It does include biographical sketches of influential academics in economics and political science at the University of Saskatchewan during the university's first half-century, but it is more than a series of potted biographies. Shirley Spafford has provided a context for the economists at Saskatchewan which gives the department a distinctive identity. These were no ordinary academics because, for a brief interlude, time and place and personalities were in tune.

The story begins with President Walter Murray's commitment to the "Wisconsin Idea" of the land grant university serving the agricultural community. Murray thought the answer was to find scientists and engineers who would do applied research on matters of concern to western farmers and so contribute to prairie prosperity. Economists could fit in by focusing on western concerns and sharing their expertise with the Saskatchewan farmers. Not surprisingly, Murray had trouble find-

ing economists to fit this pattern. For the first two decades the department had few claims to distinction. Some competent scholars did come but left after a few years. Those who stayed, like W. W. Swanson, had conservative views that the more socially oriented farmers found largely irrelevant. The economics department initially gave little leadership to the province.

Spafford then goes on a tangent with chapters on Frank Underhill and MacGregor Dawson. These were not ordinary academics, but their links with the University of Saskatchewan and its economists were tenuous. Underhill was marked by his time in Saskatoon during the 1920s but he had no roots there, and, once he moved to Toronto, both his research and his political commentary had a clear central-Canadian focus. Dawson is even less identified with the west. Even Toronto played second fiddle to his flower garden in Bridgewater, Nova Scotia.

The transformation of the department, when it came, had little to do with any planning, presidential or otherwise. The university in 1930 had no money to attract professors. As an interim measure, Murray agreed to hire two recent honours graduates to teach undergraduate courses in economics. George Britnell and Vernon Fowke were retained, at first because nobody else was available and later because both men managed to earn doctorates and to achieve national status as economists. These two men would be the key figures in establishing a national reputation for the department for a generation.

Britnell and Fowke insisted that the department must be more than an adjunct to the trade schools of agriculture and commerce. They were also determined to avoid the specialization in the disciplines of economics and political science which was developing in most older universities. They brought to their courses a sense of intellectual excitement and of involvement at close range with national issues of contemporary significance. For their students they provided a unique and formative experience.

Spafford properly links Mabel Timlin with Britnell and Fowke as the third member of a triumvirate. Timlin had come to the department with no academic credentials. She edged into the department as a secretary, then as director of the correspondence programme and finally, after completing a widely praised doctorate on John Maynard Keynes, as a professor. Timlin's work had little connection with prairie agriculture, but she shared with Britnell and Fowke a deep loyalty to the university that had accepted them and to the agricultural community that continued to respect higher education. Timlin also brought a special quality to the department. She took an almost maternal interest in her junior colleagues and her students. Timlin's combination of personal and academic concern did much to strengthen the sense of the department as a community.

This, however, is only part of the story. Other departments at other institutions might also claim to have been exceptional on the basis of scholarship and teaching. What was unique to Saskatchewan was the special role the department played in public affairs. Britnell and Fowke developed an economic interpretation of Canadian history which portrayed a Saskatchewan exploited by an imperial central Canada for "the purposes of the Dominion", with its farmlands being used to finance a transcontinental railway and to attract immigrants and with a federal tariff that

shifted the profits of wheat production to the manufacturers of central Canada. The two men, as advisors to the provincial government, played a central role in defending the interests of the province in the continuing debate over federal-provincial relations. It was a more creative version of the “Wisconsin Idea” than Murray had envisaged. For two decades after Rowell-Sirois, their version of the “National Policy” shaped Canadian constitutional development. Small wonder that their students had a sense of being present at the creation.

The success was short-lived. Within the department there were worthy successors — Ken Buckley and Ed Safarian, and Norman Ward in political science, were also loyal to the university and to the province — but times were changing. University expansion was no doubt a factor, but more important were the new demands made on economists. After Rowell-Sirois, the emphasis had been on economic stability and equity. By the 1960s, however, the focus was on job creation and economic growth. With this new approach the trump cards were held by the provinces with natural resources that had not yet been exploited. The arguments of Britnell and Fowke no longer shaped federal-provincial relations.

These were no ordinary academics, as Spafford says. It would have been easier to understand why if the author had not focused narrowly on the department and had shown also how the department had served the region in what were no ordinary times.

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Alessandro Stella — *Histoires d’esclaves dans la Péninsule Ibérique*, Paris, Éditions de l’École des Hautes Études en Sciences Sociales, 2000, 215 p.

Malgré l’intérêt croissant qu’il suscite — notamment en Espagne — l’esclavage dans la Péninsule Ibérique à l’époque moderne est encore mal connu. Et les ouvrages en français qui lui sont consacrés sont rares comme le prouve la bibliographie présentée à la fin de l’ouvrage. À l’occasion, celle-ci révèle fidèlement l’état de déséquilibre de la recherche entre les deux pays objets de l’étude. Alessandro Stella comble cette lacune en rendant accessible aux lecteurs francophones un grand nombre des problématiques qui caractérisent l’esclavage péninsulaire du XVI^e au XIX^e siècle. Les sources, principalement des dossiers de mariage, des procès-verbaux, des testaments, permettent d’approcher des individus des deux sexes, esclaves et affranchis, « agissant comme des sujets » souligne l’auteur dès l’introduction. Une perspective différente de celle qu’imprime les registres paroissiaux, les actes de vente et d’affranchissement où l’esclave est « l’objet d’une intervention extérieure » (p. 9–10). Stella a désiré « faire un livre non seulement utilisable par les historiens, mais également lisible par un public plus large » (p. 13–14). Il y est parvenu, en adoptant « le style du récit pour rendre compte par des histoires de vie de la complexité historique de l’esclavage » (p. 14). Peu de chiffres mais ceux utilisés sont essentiels pour circonscrire l’ampleur du phénomène, encore trop souvent sous-estimé. Stella évalue entre 700 000 et 800 000 le nombre d’Africains importés dans la Péninsule entre 1450 et